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ABSTRACT

Beginning with a section discussing work and work roles, this paper describes a study conducted in Australia among 800 14-year-old adolescents. Its purpose was to investigate the following questions: (1) what are the value orientations behind students' occupational choices? (2) what influences are there which will affect students' choices? (3) what are the attitudes of students toward vocational guidance? (4) can we assess the meanings of work which these students hold? The data collected was considered in light of (1) the influence of the home; (2) the influence of the school and other formal institutions; and (3) attitudes to work. The article includes an annotated bibliography of programs, books and games. (PFS)

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CAREER GUIDANCE IN SCHOOLS

by

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and

Maryla V. Juchnowski

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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The Nature of Work

Parker, in his book *The Future of Work and Leisure* (1971) has stated that work is a basic condition of the existence and continuation of human life. However, any discussion of work reveals the difficulty of reaching consensus over its meaning. Historically, the meaning of work has changed. To the ancient Greeks and Hebrews, the thought of work was a painful necessity; to the primitive Christians, work was regarded as a punishment for original sin. It was not until Protestantism became popular that work came to be considered as the 'base and key of life':

> "With the Protestant Ethic, work ceased to be represented as a punishment imposed on man by God. Rather, to work now became man's peculiarly human distinction. It was discovered to be God's Will that man should find Grace and Salvation through work; that he should, to this end, make his work a vocation and the ruling concern of his life; should give his body and mind cheerfully to work for its own sake, for the intrinsic vocational and pietistic satisfactions it provided, and should abjure sloth and idleness as he hoped to escape eternal damnation."
>
> (Carey, 1975: 1)

However, as Carey argues elsewhere in his paper, this source of legitimization of work has changed and, with it, man's orientation and expectations.

Economic orientation appears to be the prime focus in work today but there is generally a concomitant expectation concerning job satisfaction or doing meaningful work. Definition is again difficult and diffuse. Work satisfaction varies according to aspects intrinsic to the job and varies with different people employed in similar occupations.

Studies such as that undertaken by Parker (1971) have shown that, in general, different meanings are attached to work according to a person's occupation and to his perceived feelings of alienation from work. Aspects which are considered to make a job satisfying include: creating something; using skills; working wholeheartedly; using initiative and having responsibility; mixing with people; and working with people who know their job. Aspects which may cause dissatisfaction include: doing repetitive work; making only a small part of something; doing useless tasks; feeling a sense of insecurity; being too closely supervised. (After Parker, 1971: 43-45).

On the whole it seems that the meaning of work appears to vary according to three factors:

(1) type of occupation (skill used);

(2) industry (use to which the skills are put);

(3) status (position in the employing organization or in society).

(Parker, 1971)

Today, the number of work roles possible is by no means exhausted. With the continuing spread of technology, the number of options will continue to rise. At the same time many long established occupations will be superseded by new techniques of production and distribution.

It is within this context of rapid change and continued technological advances that society is now demanding that youth be trained in more specialized fields, and at an earlier age. The ramifications are enormous: for example, important life decisions are not only thrust upon our youth at an earlier age, but the decisions continue to increase in complexity. With increasing diversity and changing patterns in work roles, youth no longer are trained in their father's or mother's profession to the same extent as in the past. This makes parents no longer adequately equipped to

assist with their children's job and educational decisions. Youth today may often have an accurate knowledge of wages and hours, but have little knowledge of work content and training requirements (Keil 1974).

It would seem, then, that the school could fulfil an important function in career guidance since it is responsible for students during their pre-work years. However, if schools assume a more active role in career guidance, they need to look more carefully at the processes involved in occupational decision making and examine their role in the total context of job choice.

Choosing a Job

Many theories of occupational choice have been promulgated. Ginzberg (1951), for example, hypothesized that job decision is not a single step, but rather a series of decisions taken over a number of years, with each decision being linked to previous ones and to those following. The three basic developmental phases he postulates before the ultimate decision is made are:

1st stage - fantasy period - (6-11 years)

Children take no account of reality factors and their fantasies are exploratory, e.g., I want to be an astronaut, or a fireman.

2nd stage - tentative period (11-18 years)

Adolescents initially take into account their interests, abilities and values. Subsequently they consider other external factors, e.g., peer pressure, wishes of parents, etc. During this stage there develops a crystallization of choice.

3rd stage - realistic period (18 years plus)

Individuals at this point are usually engaged in occupations, or are in preparation for occupations.

Three major criticisms have been levelled at Ginzberg's theory by Pavalko (1971), viz.:

(1) it is culture bound in that the stages and age spans are closely tied to the American educational system;

(2) it is time bound in that not all 18 year olds take full time employment (for example, some continue on to tertiary education);

(3) it primarily explains men's occupational choice and adds little to our understandings of the decisions affecting job choice for women.

Matching Persons to Work Roles

In terms of organizing a vocational guidance programme, does any one theory provide a workable model? Different theories may apply specifically to different occupations or to different social class groups, e.g. the concept of 'rational planning' is often thought to be more a middle-class notion than a working-class one. If this is so, would Ginzberg's model then be more suitable in determining middle-class occupational choices? There is some evidence, for example, which indicates that more working-class youth tend to drift in and out of various jobs more easily than do their middle-class counterparts (Keil et al., 1967).

Important socio-cultural parameters constraining occupational choice have been advanced by Keil and her colleagues (1967). The Keil approach involves the concept of socialization. There are three major socializing influences:

(1) the influence of the home - including the socio-economic status of the family;

(2) the influence of the school - including peer pressure;

(3) the influence of attitudes - especially attitudes to work.

A number of studies has explored this last factor. For example, Powell (1962) found a number of motivating factors which formed the basis of occupational choice for his sample. There were marked sex differences - interest in the work and then security being the most important for boys; and interest in the work, interest in people and service to others being the most important for girls. Another researcher, Schwarzweller (1960) was able to cluster the work values as stated by his samples into three major and qualitatively different dimensions:

(1) values on material comfort, security, hard work, external conformity;

(2) values on mental and creative work;

(3) values on friendship, work with people and service to the community.

Once again, sex differences in work values were found.

It is important, therefore, that value orientations are also considered in any vocational guidance programme.

With so many pressures placed on youth today, and the increasingly complex nature of occupational choice, it is not surprising that so many young people rate 'choosing a job' high on a 'problem' scale (Connell et al., 1975). In fact, occupational choice is often the underlying cause of a great deal of anxiety and distress in adolescents. It would seem a priority therefore to evaluate the vocational guidance facilities currently provided to assist in this decision making process, to see where the school can best serve.

At present, in Victorian schools, the position of Careers Advisor is generally allotted to a credentialled teacher who may not necessarily have an interest in the area of careers, or who may not have any relevant qualifications or experience. The Careers Officer is usually inundated with printed material on various occupations which may be given to students on request. In many schools this constitutes the bulk of a career guidance programme. Careers Advice Bureaus in the wider community often rely heavily on batteries of tests to assist in informing clients what jobs they appear to be suitable for (Sweet 1974).

It is not surprising, then, that a great deal of criticism has been levelled at career guidance. In recent years, the guidance movement in both the United Kingdom and the United States has been re-examining its methods, goals and assumptions. Great Britain has tended to centre its efforts on the use of traditional techniques in guidance, e.g. aptitude tests. In the United States, counsellors are questioning the goals to which the techniques are applied, e.g. "Who is guidance for? What is guidance for?". A trend apparent now is the over-emphasis on recruitment of students for vocational courses.

Although those students who are not tertiary bound are offered very little in the way of guidance, they are not the only group to be dissatisfied. Sweet (1974), in his studies into the adequacy of guidance facilities offered by the Ministry of Labour and Industry (Sydney), stated that the majority of people who sought guidance did not need it and that the group most satisfied with their programme were middle-class males planning a tertiary career. Females, migrants, people with lower IQs, were not well catered for. Non-government organizations were also not catering for these groups.

Unfortunately, it also happens sometimes that people who would benefit most from counselling are not those who seek out community organizations. Schools, on the other hand, need not have this disadvantage of under-utilization by selected groups. The Career Advisor is in a position to approach those students intending to leave school early. This could be done relatively easily if the career officer also has a teaching role. In addition, by being in the same environment, the advisor has the opportunity to get to know the individual, thus making contact potentially more fruitful.

Community and governmental career services are available in Victoria (see Appendix A), but the emphasis of this paper is on the role of the school in what is seen as an important decision making phase affecting one's life chances considerably. The basis for examining this question is data collected from students' participation in The 15-18 Year Old Project. What did these students say about their vocational guidance experience, and its helpfulness and relevance to occupational choice?

With funds provided by the Australian Advisory Committee on Research and Development in Education, information was collected from 800 adolescents aged fourteen in 1972, who attended a representative sample of 32 schools in Melbourne. The data related to areas of concern such as curricula, teachers, feelings of success and failure and vocational guidance. Only this latter dimension is examined here.

Aims of the Report

An attempt was made to investigate four questions:

(1) what are the value orientations behind the students' occupational choices?;

(2) what influences are there which will affect students' choices?;

(3) what are the attitudes of students towards Vocational Guidance?;

(4) can we assess the meanings of work which these students hold?

Following the approach to vocational choice used by Keil et al. (1967), analysis of the data is considered in three main categories:

(1) influence of the home;

(2) influence of the school and other formal institutions;

(3) attitudes to work.

A fourth section on students' attitudes to Vocational Guidance is also included. This presentation of results is preceded by a brief overview of students' vocational aspirations and expectations along with measures of firmness of job decision

Results

Vocational aspirations and expectations

From Table 1, it can be seen that both the aspirations and expectations of students in the sample are high. There is little variation between the total aspiration patterns and the expectations students hold. It could be postulated in terms of a developmental model that the bulk of the students are still in the 'tentative' stage of occupational development, since they are aged fourteen and no reality testing has been possible.

Table 1. Job Aspirations and Expectations of 14 Year Olds (N=797)

Job Classification *Lancaster-Jones Scale*	Job Aspiration			Job Expectation		
	Male	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Unskilled manual	4.4+	13.8*	9.2	4.6	9.1*	6.9
Semi-skilled manual	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.6	3.6	2.7
Skilled manual	18.7	1.0*	10.5	25.7	1.6*	13.5
White collar	5.2	21.8*	13.7	10.3	29.3*	20.2
Managerial	3.6	0.3	1.9	3.0	0.0	1.5
Lower professional	18.5	44.6*	31.6	17.0	45.1*	31.4
Upper professional	40.6	13.6*	26.5	34.6	8.3*	20.6
Don't know	7.3	3.6	5.2	3.2	3.1	3.1

+ Figures are in percentages
* Sex differences, significant at the 0.05 level of confidence or better

Firmness of job decision

From Table 2, it can be seen that fewer than one third of the sample were definite in their job plans. This is not surprising since, in Ginzberg's framework, the students' occupational plans may not be very realistic at this age. At the same time, it is worth noting that 40% of the sample feel that they have a fair knowledge of what they want to do.

Table 2. Firmness of Job Decision (N=797)

Response	%
Don't know	5.5
Undecided	26.7
Fair knowledge	40.4
Definite knowledge	27.4
Total	100.0

There were no significant sex differences in firmness of job decisions.

Influence of the home

The role of the family in occupational choice seems to be very important. On the questionnaire, students were asked two questions:

(1) to state how often they had job discussions with their parents; and

(2) to indicate how helpful these discussions were.

The following tables (Tables 3 and 4) in which the responses are summarized, are interesting in themselves, but have more impact when compared with the students' responses regarding attempts to seek vocational information elsewhere (Table 6).

Table 3. Frequency of Job Discussion (N=797)

Response	%
Frequently	26.7
Occasionally	66.1
Never	7.1
No response	2.1
Total	100.0

Table 4. Parental Job Help (N=797)

Response	%
Great help	26.2
Some help	63.6
No help	10.3
Total	100.0

The data indicated that those students who spoke frequently with their parents had far more definite ideas on both job choice and educational plans. Conversely, those who never talked to parents were most undecided about the future. These results are in keeping with those reported by Jahoda (1952) and Hill (1965), whose work indicated that parents were a dominant influence on adolescent decision making.

The influence of the home was also obvious when parental (both mother's and father's) job aspirations for their children were cross-tabulated with the aspirations and expectations of their offspring.

Table 5. +Students' Perceptions of Father's Aspirations for Them (N=797)

Father's aspirations for student	Skilled	White collar	Professional	Total
Skilled	77	7	13	97
White collar	10	74	16	100
Professional	21	10	340	371
Total	108	91	369	568

$X^2 = 597.9$ with 4^o of freedom. $P = <0.001$

+ Aspirations as measured by the Lancaster-Jones Scale. Interpretations here must only be tentative as the parents' aspirations for the child are as the child perceives them.

Influence of (a) school, and (b) social class

Students were asked how often they had received vocational assistance in the last twelve months from teachers, from career advisors, from outside school sources, and from other non-specified sources.

Table 6. Sources of Career Advice

Sources	Responses %		
	None	*Once*	*Several*
Job advice from teachers	77.1	12.7	9.9
Job advice from career advisors	88.8	7.0	4.1
Job advice from outside school	90.5	5.8	3.4
Job advice from other sources	66.9	9.2	24.0

The most striking feature derived from Table 6 is the non-use of career resources by the students. Is it that most students see little value in approaching careers officers, or is this facility not widely available and not easily accessible? It is interesting to note that those who spoke to teachers several times were found to be more definite in their job plans when these two aspects were cross-tabulated.

The question arises as to whether these various services are trying to duplicate the functions of the family and of each other. It was interesting to find that this was not the case. Pupils who had contact with parents were the same group who would seek guidance from various other sources (i.e. the 30% of students who spoke frequently with parents also spoke to their teacher, compared with 13% who spoke to teachers but not to parents). This would tend to support Sweet's (1974) statement that those who seek guidance are not the neediest group in the community.

The study was also designed to discover whether there were any social class or school type differences in the use of these career facilities. Inspection of the data indicated that, of the few students who do seek career guidance from teachers (22.6%) those from the lower socio-economic groupings seek guidance more from teachers whereas children from professional parents sought the advice of careers officers, (i.e. of the 22.6% who seek advice from teachers, 28% are from working-class groups; of the 11.1% who seek

advice from careers officers, 20% are from professional classes and only 8% are from the working class).

Comparison by school type revealed that career officers were most used in the Catholic schools. Independent school students tended to seek guidance from outside services. It is interesting to speculate as to what these results are saying about the career guidance facilities currently offered by schools.

Attitudes to work

Analysis of the reasons given for job choice was also carried out. It was possible to cluster these reasons into categories similar to those used by Schwarzweller (1961). (See Table 7).

Table 7. Value Orientations Towards Work

Cluster No.	15-18 Year Old Project Coding	Schwarzweller's Coding
Cluster 1	Extrinsic influences	Values on material comfort, security, etc.
Cluster 2	Self-expression	Values on mental and creative work
Cluster 3	People-oriented reasons	Values on friendship and service to the community

Students were asked to give three reasons for their occupational choice. Reasons given remained constant, except for Cluster 2, where extrinsic reward was given as a third reason for choice of occupation. Cross-tabulations were calculated for variables such as job aspirations, expectations, father's occupation (as measured by the Lancaster-Jones Scale) and sex type, to discover more about the students who varied in value orientations towards work.

Table 8. Work Cluster Patterns for Social Class, Sex Groups

Clusters	Aspirations & expectations	Sex	Aspirations controlled for social class
Extrinsic	White collar	Male	White collar
Self-expression	Unskilled/manual	Male	Unskilled/manual
People-oriented	Professional	Female	Professional

It can be seen from Table 8, that value orientations are closely linked with type of occupation and sex. This trend is reinforced when social class differences are studied. There are no group differences between social class groupings, and work clusters form the same pattern with job aspirations for each social class group. The trend for job expectations is the same as for job aspirations for the first two work clusters, but not for the third. For example, those students whose motives for choosing a job were 'extrinsic' expected to obtain a job, no matter what social class grouping they came from. Similarly, those wanting to be 'self-expressed' expected to obtain an unskilled or manual occupation. There was, however, more variation in expectations for those students whose motives were 'people-oriented'. Students from both professional and low SES groupings expected to get white collar jobs whereas those from the middle class expected to get professional jobs.

In Table 9, the three work orientation clusters were cross-tabulated with other occupational values, and significant differences were again evident. Students were asked to state whether the following occupational values were (a) not important, (b) fairly important, or (c) very important.

Table 9. Values in Job Choice

Important aspects of jobs	Extrinsic	Self-expression	People-oriente
Special abilities	Not important	Very important	Not important
Wages	Fairly important	Very important	Not important
Conditions	Very important	Fairly important	Not important
Meeting interesting people	Not important	Not important	Very important
Like, interest in job	Not important	Very important	Very important
Use to the community	Not important	Not important	Very important
Serving God	Very important	Not important	Very important
Helping others	Not important	Fairly important	Very important
Being creative	Fairly important	Very important	Not important

When personality variables such as neuroticism and self-esteem are viewed with cluster orientations, it seems that those who chose Cluster 1 (extrinsic) for their reasons for job choice tended to be low on neuroticism, whereas those choosing people-oriented reasons were high on neuroticism. However, there was no such trend for those who chose Cluster 2 (self-expression). When controlling for sex type, it was found that Cluster 1 (extrinsic) males have medium to high self-esteem whereas with girls there are no appreciable differences. Cluster 2 (self-expression) females tend to be low on self-esteem, but no male differences were noted in this cluster. Cluster 3 (people-oriented) males were low on self-esteem, whereas girls had medium to high self-esteem.

Student attitudes to vocational guidance

A series of nine statements were put to the students. These fell into two categories:

(1) statements acknowledging the need for information for those students who have already made a job decision;

(2) statements acknowledging the need for help in choosing appropriate jobs.

Students were asked to agree or disagree with nine statements indicating perceived need for:

Group 1 statements

(1) more job relevant subjects

(2) more about job qualifications

(3) more about money and home

(4) more about job application techniques

(5) more about managing in first job;

Group 2 statements

(1) more information in careers room

(2) more discussions with career advisors

(3) more visiting speakers

(4) more visits to see job conditions.

Table 10. Perceived Guidance Needs

Statements	Responses %			
	Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
Group 1				
1	0.9	11.3	55.3	32.4
2	0.8	4.8	55.3	38.9
3	2.5	21.2	51.9	24.4
4	0.5	11.8	60.5	27.0
5	3.2	27.3	50.8	18.6
Group 2				
1	1.2	17.7	53.1	27.9
2	1.7	10.3	57.7	29.9
3	1.9	9.2	52.3	36.4
4	2.0	13.4	46.6	38.0

The trends in Table 10 indicate how important career information is to students. Since at least 70% of the sample seem to agree to the importance of each of the nine areas it is interesting to note that only two statements from each group showed any significant differences when considered against variables such as school type, job aspirations and expectations, and educational aspirations. These were: more job relevant subjects and more about managing in first job (Group 1); more discussions with career advisors and more visiting speakers (Group 2).

Those students who wanted more job relevant subjects expected to get a job in a skilled or unskilled trade, thus planning on leaving school early. Those students wanting to know more about job management were aspiring to and expecting to become white-collar workers. Students who strongly agreed with the two statements listed from Group 1 tended to come from both the technical and high schools.

Those aspiring to and expecting to get a professional job disagreed with Group 1 statements and appeared to come from Catholic and Independent Schools. Students who saw the need for more discussions with Careers Advisors and visiting speakers came mainly from the Independent schools. Catholic school students did not agree with the second two statements. Technical students also saw little need for visiting speakers.

Conclusion

It seems, then, that the function of a school vocational guidance programme is basically two-fold:

(1) to assist in the decision making process;

(2) to develop vocational programmes relevant to the needs of different groups.

From this study it is clear that vocational guidance needs to be based on more than job and educational plans and school type. The influence of the student's home and background, as well as his/her individual work values, also play a major role. How these work values emerge is still unclear. Nevertheless, consultation with students to discover these aspects is of the utmost importance when designing career programmes. The data also indicated that assisting in the decision making process of the students should also be of prime concern to schools. Should this assistance, however, help students to make an immediate career choice or a choice for life?

Toffler, in his book *Future Shock*, argues that many people today will have over four major changes in their work situation. It seems that having a life-time career is not as common as it was previously. In light of this, assistance in the decision making process is all the more important for students, no matter when they are planning on leaving school. An example of a useful strategy is supplied by Levy (1974) who attempted a programme based on decision making with a group of sixth form students at University High in Melbourne. Continual experimentation in this area is urged if schools are to take a major role in career guidance and if appropriate and diversified strategies are to be developed.

Career programmes need not be seen as separated from the main academic stream of the school. Many attempts are now made to incorporate the world of work into existing subjects such as consumer education, social and general studies. Simulation games, job visits and work outs are becoming widespread. These, coupled with individual assistance to those students who need it, can make for a more efficient career guidance programme in schools.

To summarize the main points of the research: the students' work values, and what they regarded as important aspects of work were similar to the ideas advanced by Parker (1971) when discussing job satisfaction. At the age of fourteen, the major influence on the students' occupational aspirations and expectations are the parents. This reliance on parents may, of course, partly reflect the inadequacy of guidance facilities offered by schools and other organizations. From student responses to the statements on vocational guidance programmes, and supplementary information obtained from interviews with early leavers (in progress) it is clear that students would like a more adequate and appropriate guidance service. If such a service were provided, a greater number of school leavers might feel a little more secure when the time comes for them to make their first major occupational and educational decision.

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APPENDIX A

Useful Information on Vocational Guidance for use in Schools.

Contact	Address & Phone	Expertise	Notes e.g. names of people concerned usefulness of contact.
. Ministry of Labour & Immigration (a) Vocational Guidance (b) Commonwealth Employment Service Adminstration	Princes Gates 151 Flinders Street, Melbourne Phone 654-3011	(a) Guest Speakers (b) Counselling (c) Career Education Course (d) Printed Material	
. Career Reference Centre	Flinders Lane Melbourne. (behind) St. Paul's Cathedral Phone 631815 or 631816	(a) Printed material available for inspection only (b) Audio visual material also available.	
. R.M.I.T.	La Trobe Street Melbourne Phone 345-2822	The college is offering a 2 year postgraduate course in Career Guidance	
. Education Department Psychology & Guidance	234 Queensberry Street Carlton	Researching into Career development of youth and interesting indesigning career Education courses	
. Government Depts. e.g. Public Service Board Social Welfare Armed Forces e.g. Navy	Treasury Pl. Ph.630241 555 Swanston St. Ph.6544222 301 Flinders Lane Ph. 613731	(a) Guest Speakers (b) Printed information available on request.	

Contact	Address & Phone	Expertise	Notes e.g. names of people concerned usefulness of contact
6. Universities + C.A.E.	too numerous to mention	(a) Guest Speakers (b) "Open Days"	
7. Apprenticeship Commission	200 Little Collins St. Melbourne. Ph.6544800	(a) Printed information on apprenticeships available and qualifications needed.	
8. State Film Centre	1 MacArthur Street Melbourne Ph. 6511301	Films on Careers - no hiring fees.	
9. Bank Education Service	406 Lonsdale Street Melbourne Ph. 671537	(a) Printed information (b) Speakers (c) Films.	
10. Research Section Division of Vocational Guidance Services	Department of Labour & Industry. N.S.W.	Free copies of their reports on Vocational Guidance.	
11. The Hobson Press	The Academic Bookshop 14 Macs Road Lane Cove. N.S.W.2066.	Catalogues describing material available e.g. books, games etc. on Vocational Guidance.	
12. Large Business concerns e.g. B.H.P., Insurance Co.	too numerous to mention	(a) Speakers (b) Films (c) Printed Information.	

Contact	Address & Phone	Expertise	Notes e.g. names of people concerned usefulness of contact.
13. Local Business men in your neighbourhood.		(a) Speakers (b) Organization of workout programs (c) Speakers on Career nights (d) Organization of visits to their place of business	
14. High Schools e.g. Moreland High Huntingdale Tech.	The Avenue, Coburg Ph. 361691 Bakers Rd. Oakleigh Ph. 5792322	Operating "Work out" Programs	
15. Newspapers e.g. "The Age" The Learning Exchange.	Marketing Service Dept. GPO Box 257C. Melbourne 3001. 430 Waverley Rd. E.Malvern Ph. 2115413	Written information available. Speakers.	

APPENDIX B

The Research Section of the Division of Vocational Guidance Services, (Department of Labour & Industry, N.S.W.) has prepared a list of materials available in Australia in Career Education. All the material has been coded according to the following categories *

A = Complete program (either in one specific area or in general careers education).

B = Exercises could be used separately from the entire program.

C = Decision-making skills.

D = Self-analysis and/or job analysis.

E = General exercises to facilitate group interaction.

F = Exercises are shown in full.

G = Theory and/or practice regarding organization of careers programs.

Programs

1) Crowley, T. Choosing a Job (CRAC, 1972) suitable for 14-16 year olds. A.B.D.F.

2) Crowley, T. Finding a Job (CRAC, 1972). Suitable for 14-16 year olds of lower ability. A.B.D.F.

3) Department of Labour and Immigration. Career Planning: A series of programmes to stimulate and provoke thinking. (1975). Similar to Dr. K. Underwood's C.O.P. programme (circulated late 1974), but more appropriate for 14-16 year olds of lower ability pupils. A.B.C.D.F.

4) Law, B. Decide for Yourself (CRAC, 1973). Suitable for average and above average ability 16-18 year olds. A.B.C.F.

5) Macleay, D & Reid, J. Career Decisions (CRAC, 1973). Suitable for more "academic" 14-16 year olds. A.B.C.D.F.

6) March, P. & Western, T. Lift off from school (CRAC, 1973). suitable for 14-16 year olds. A.B.D.F.

7) March, P. & Smith, M. Vocational Choice. A pupil's guide to choosing a career (CRAC, 1974). Suitable for 14-16 year olds of average and above average ability. A.B.C.D.F.

* Taken from Program : Towards the implementation of a group guidance. T. Pryor, paper given at the September Refresher Course 1975.

8) Watts, A & Elsom, D. (Ad.) Deciding: a course for learning how to make decisions. Students and teacher's books available. Suitable for 16-18 year olds of mixed ability. A.B.C.F.

BOOKS

9) Avent, C. Practical Approaches to Career Education. (CRAC, 1974) Includes general sections on the use of audio-visual aids, interviewing, tests and questionnaires, works visits, work experience and contact with parents. G.

10) Campbell R. et al. Career Guidance: a Handbook of Methods (Charles E. Merrill, 1973) Outlines examples of methods and programs suitable for particular groups and individuals. (for example, rural youth, various age groups, women). Gives general directions for incorporation and applicability of various methods. These are abstracted rather than printed out in full.

11) Hayes, J. & Hopson, B. Careers Guidance (CRAC, 1972). Includes sections on vocational development, occupational choice and information, testing and self-assessment techniques (includes examples of the latter). B.C.F.G.

12) Hopson, B. and Hough, P. Exercises in Personal and Career Development. (CRAC, 1973.) A valuable source of exercises specifically designed for use with groups. Includes exercises in personal development (sensing, feeling, thinking, doing) and vocational development (education, occupation, life).

13) Krumbolts, J and Thoresen, C. Behavioural Counseling. Cases and Techniques. (Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969). Contains a wide variety of group and individual counselling and therapy techniques and methods. A.B.C.D.F.

GAMES

SPEEDCOP Careers Game (CRAC).

Concerned with learning about what people do in their jobs and how it affects their lives. Useful for provoking discussion. In our experience, a leader with extensive knowledge of occupations would need to be present, since it tends to presuppose that a certain amount of information about careers is already known.

Pictorial Interest Guide (CRAC)

Suitable particularly for people who are deficient in language skills (eg. poor readers). Consists of a series of cards which depict key jobs within five broad occupational areas. Can be used with individuals (for example, as an alternative to a written interest inventory) or groups. Use with groups is in the form of "card games" which illustrate such areas as inter-dependence between occupations, the distortion of attitudes towards occupations because of stereotypes and inaccurate

information and identification of the skills and needs of different work roles. PJC could be used individually with nervous, timid or inarticulate clients.